NAME: _____

TERM 1&2

YEAR 11

SCIENCE

PLYMPTON ACADEMY

HANDBOOK

TERM 1&2

AQA GCSE Chemistry (Combined Science) Unit 5.3: Quantitative Chemistry Knowledge Organiser - Foundation

Conservation of Mass

No atoms can be created or made during a chemical reaction, so the mass of the reactants will equal the mass of the product.

Reactions can be shown as a word or symbol equation.

magnesium + oxygen → magnesium oxide

Mg + O → MgO

Symbol equations should also be balanced; they should have the same number of atoms on each side.

$2Mg + O_2 \rightarrow 2MgO$

Relative Formula Mass

The relative formulas mass is the sum of all the relative atomic masses of the atoms in the formula.

Examples:

HCl

A_r of H = 1

A_r of Cl = 35.5

1 + 35.5 = 36.5

H_2SO_4

A_r of H = 1

A_r of S = 32

A_r of O = 16

(1 × 2) + 32 + (16 × 4)

2 + 32 + 64 = 98

Calculating Percentage Mass of an Element in a Compound

percentage mass of an element in a compound =

$$A_r \times \frac{\text{number of atoms of that element}}{M_r \text{ of the compound}}$$

Find the percentage mass of magnesium in magnesium oxide.

A_r of magnesium = 24 A_r of oxygen = 16

M_r of MgO = 24 + 16

= 40

$$\% \text{ mass} = \frac{A_r}{M_r} = \frac{16}{40} = 0.4 \qquad 0.4 \times 100 = 40\%$$

Concentration of Solutions

Concentration is the amount of a substance in a specific volume of a solution. The more substance that is dissolved, then the more concentrated the solution is.

It is possible to calculate the concentration of a solution with the following equation:

concentration (g/dm^3) = mass (g) ÷ volume of solvent (dm^3)

The equation can be rearranged to find the mass of the dissolved substance:

mass (g) = concentration (g/dm^3) × volume (dm^3)

Conservation of Mass

Show that mass is conserved in a reaction.

$2Mg + O_2 \rightarrow 2MgO$

$(2 \times 24) + (2 \times 16) \rightarrow 2(24 + 16)$

$48 + 32 \rightarrow 2 \times 40$

$80 \rightarrow 80$

Total M_r on the left-hand side of the equation is the same as the M_r on the right-hand side.

Calculate the mass of the product.

8g of magnesium reacts with 6g of oxygen:

8 + 6 = 14g of magnesium oxide

During a reaction the mass can change. If one of the reactants is a gas, the mass can go up.

E.g.

magnesium + oxygen → magnesium oxide

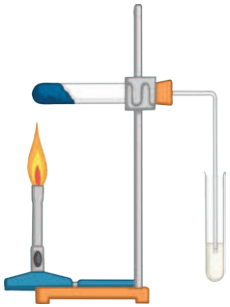
Oxygen from the air is added to the magnesium (making the product) which will be heavier in mass.

If one of the products is a gas, the mass can go down.

E.g.

sodium carbonate → sodium oxide + carbon dioxide

When sodium carbonate is thermally decomposed, carbon dioxide gas is produced and released into the atmosphere.

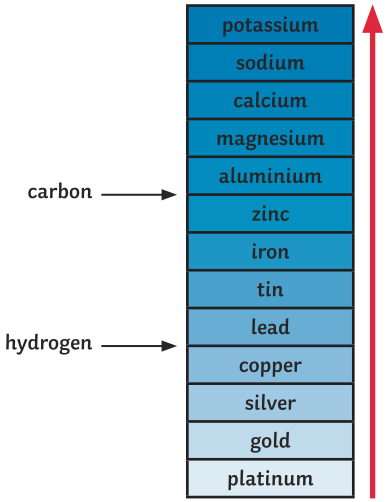


AQA GCSE Chemistry (Combined Science) Unit 4: Chemical Changes Knowledge Organiser

The Reactivity Series

Here's a mnemonic to help you learn the order:

purple (potassium)
slime (sodium)
can (calcium)
make (magnesium)
a (aluminium)
careless (carbon)
zebra (zinc)
insane (iron)
try (tin)
learning (lead)
how (hydrogen)
camels (copper)
surprise (silver)
gorillas (gold)



The reactivity series is a league table for metals. The more reactive metals are near the top of the table with the least reactive near the bottom. In chemical reactions, a more reactive metal will displace a less reactive metal.

Reactions of Metals with Water

Metals, when reacted with water, produce a metal hydroxide and hydrogen.

lithium + water ⟶ lithium hydroxide + hydrogen

$2Li + 2H_2O \longrightarrow 2LiOH + H_2$

The more reactive a metal is, the faster the reaction.

Reactions of Metals with Dilute Acid

Metals, when reacted with acids, produce a salt and hydrogen.

Sodium + hydrochloric acid ⟶ sodium chloride + hydrogen

$2Na + 2HCl \longrightarrow 2NaCl + H_2$

Metals that are below hydrogen in the reactivity series **do not** react with dilute acids.

Reactions of Acids

The general formula for the reaction between an acid and a metal is: acid + metal ⟶ salt + hydrogen

For example: hydrochloric acid + sodium ⟶ sodium chloride + hydrogen

$2HCl + 2Na \longrightarrow 2NaCl + H_2$

When an acid reacts with an alkali, a neutralisation reaction takes place and a salt and water are produced.

The general formula for this kind of reaction is as follows:

acid + alkali ⟶ salt + water

hydrochloric acid + sodium hydroxide ⟶ sodium chloride + water

$HCl + NaOH \longrightarrow NaCl + H_2O$

Naming Salts

The first part comes from the metal in the metal carbonate, oxide or hydroxide. The second part of the name comes from the acid that was used to make it.

Acid Used	Salt Produced
hydrochloric	chloride
nitric	nitrate
sulfuric	sulfate

For example, sodium chloride.

Redox Reactions (Higher Tier Only)

When metals react with acids, they undergo a redox reaction. A **redox reaction** occurs when both **oxidation** and **reduction** take place at the **same time.**

For example:

$2H^+ + Ca \longrightarrow Ca^{2+} + H_2$

The ionic equation can be further split into two half equations.

$Ca \longrightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2e^-$

Oxidation is loss of electrons.

$2H^+ + 2e^- \longrightarrow H_2$

Reduction is gaining of electrons.

Reactions with Bases

The general formula for the reaction between an acid and a metal oxide is: acid + metal oxide ⟶ salt + water

sulfuric acid + copper oxide ⟶ copper sulfate + water

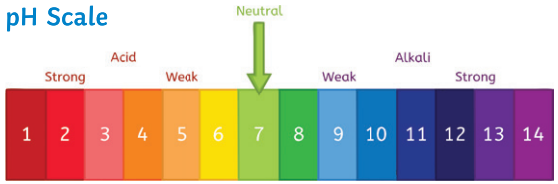
$H_2SO_4 + CuO \longrightarrow CuSO_4 + H_2O$

Reactions with Carbonates

The general formula for the reaction between an acid and a carbonate is: acid + carbonate ⟶ salt + water + carbon dioxide

hydrochloric acid + calcium carbonate ⟶ calcium chloride + water + carbon dioxide

pH Scale



In aqueous solutions, acids produce H^+ ions and alkalis produce OH^- ions.

Neutral solutions are pH7 and are neither acids or alkalis.

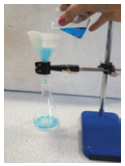
For example, in neutralisation reactions, hydrogen ions from an acid react with hydroxide ions from an alkali to produce water:

$H^+ + OH^- \longrightarrow H_2O$

Making Soluble Salts

1. Make a saturated solution by stirring copper oxide into the sulfuric acid until no more will dissolve.

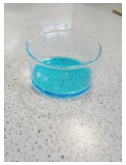
2. Filter the solution to remove the excess copper oxide solid.



3. Half fill a beaker with water and set this over a Bunsen burner to heat the water. Place an evaporating dish on top of the beaker.

4. Add some of the solution to the evaporating basin and heat until crystals begin to form.

5. Once cooled, pour the remaining liquid into a crystallising dish and leave to cool for 24 hours.



6. Remove the crystals with a spatula and pat dry between paper towels.

Strong and Weak Acids (Higher Tier Only)

A **strong** acid **completely dissociates** in a solution. For example: $HCl \longrightarrow H^+ + Cl^-$

Hydrochloric acid is able to completely dissociate in solution to form hydrogen and chloride ions.

Examples of strong acids include nitric acid (HNO_3) and sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4).

Weak acids in comparison only partially dissociate.

For example acetic acid **partially dissociates** to form a hydrogen and acetate ion.

$CH_3COOH \rightleftharpoons CH_3COO^- + H^+$

The **double arrow** symbol indicates that the reaction is **reversible**. Both the forward and reverse reaction occur at the same time and the reaction never goes to completion.

The Process of Electrolysis

Electrolysis is the **splitting up** of an ionic substance using **electricity.**

On setting up an electrical circuit for electrolysis, two **electrodes** are required to be placed in the electrolyte. The electrodes are **conducting rods.** One of the rods is connected to the **positive** terminal and the other to the **negative** terminal.

The **electrodes** are **inert** (this means they do not react in the reaction) and are often made from **graphite** or platinum.

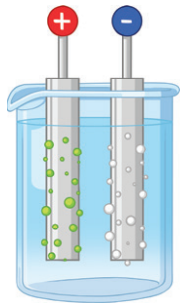
During the process of electrolysis, **opposites attract.** The positively charged ions will be attracted toward the negative electrode. The negatively charged ions will be attracted towards the positive electrode.

When ions reach the electrodes, the charges are lost and they become elements.

The **positive** electrode is called the **anode.**

The **negative** electrode is called the **cathode.**

Electrolysis of Aqueous Solutions



Gases may be given off or metals deposited at the electrodes. This is dependent on the reactivity of the elements involved.

If the metal is **more reactive** than **hydrogen** in the reactivity series, then **hydrogen** will be **produced** at the **negative cathode.** At the **positive anode,** negatively charged ions **lose** electrons. This is called **oxidation** and you say that the ions have been oxidised.

Using Electrolysis to Extract Metals

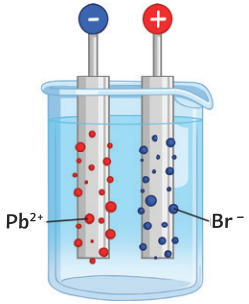
Metals are extracted by electrolysis if the metal in question reacts with carbon or if it is too reactive to be extracted by reduction with carbon. During the extraction process, large quantities of energy are used to melt the compounds.

Aluminium is manufactured by the process of electrolysis. Aluminium oxide has a high melting point and melting it would use large amounts of energy. This would increase the cost of the process, therefore molten **cryolite** is added to aluminium oxide to lower the melting point and thus reduce the cost.

Electrolysis of Molten Ionic Compounds – Lead Bromide

Lead bromide is an **ionic** substance. Ionic substances, when solid, are **not** able to conduct electricity. When molten or in solution, the ions are free to move and are able to carry a charge.

The **positive** lead ions are attracted toward the **negative cathode** at the same time as the **negative bromide** ions are attracted toward the **positive anode.**



Oxidation **i**s the **l**oss of electrons and **r**eduction **i**s the **g**aining of electrons. **OIL RIG** (Higher Tier Only).

We represent what is happening at the electrodes by using **half equations** (Higher Tier Only).

The lead ions are attracted towards the negative electrode. When the **lead ions** (Pb^{2+}) reach the cathode, each ion **gains two electrons** and becomes a neutral atom. We say that the lead ions have been **reduced.**

$Pb^{2+} + 2e^- \longrightarrow Pb$

The bromide ions are attracted towards the positive electrode. When the **bromide ions** (Br-) reach the anode, each ion **loses one electron** to become a neutral atom. Two bromine atoms are then able to bond together to form the covalent molecule Br_2.

$2Br^- \longrightarrow Br_2 + 2e^-$

Inheritance, Variation and Evolution Knowledge Organiser

Keywords

allele – An alternative form of a gene.

asexual reproduction – The production of offspring from a single parent by mitosis. The offspring are clones of the parent.

chromosome – Structures that contain the DNA of an organism and are found in the nucleus.

cystic fibrosis – A disorder of cell membranes that is caused by a recessive allele.

DNA - A polymer that is made up of two strands that form a double helix.

dominant – An allele that is always expressed, even if only one copy is present.

fertilisation – The fusion of male and female gametes.

gamete – Sperm cell and egg cell in animals; pollen and egg cell in plants.

gene – A small section of DNA that codes for a specific protein.

genome – The entire genetic material of an organism.

genotype – The combination of alleles.

heterozygous – A genotype that has two different alleles, one dominant and one recessive.

homozygous – A genotype that has two of the same alleles. Either two dominant alleles or two recessive alleles.

meiosis – The two-stage process of cell division that reduces the chromosome number of the daughter cells. It makes gametes for sexual reproduction.

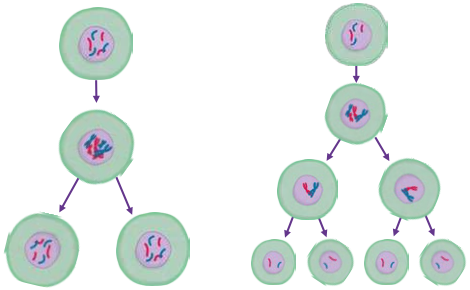
mutation – A change in DNA.

phenotype – The characteristic expressed because of the combination of alleles.

polydactyly – Having extra fingers or toes. It is caused by a dominant allele.

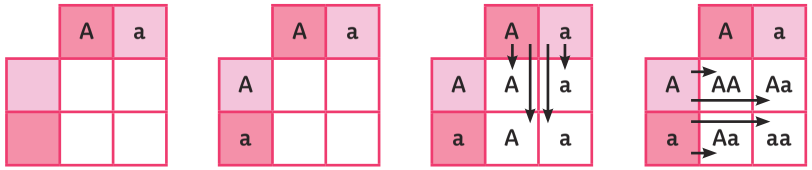
recessive – An allele that is only expressed if two copies of it are present.

sexual reproduction – The production of offspring by combining genetic information from the gametes of two parents. Leads to variation in the offspring.



Mitosis	Meiosis
Produces two daughter cells.	Produces four daughter cells.
Daughter cells are genetically identical.	Daughter cells are not genetically identical.
The cell divides once.	The cell divides twice.
The chromosome number of the daughter cells is the same as the parent cells. In humans, this is 46 chromosomes.	The chromosome number is reduced by half. In humans, this is 23 chromosomes.
Used for growth and repair, and asexual reproduction.	Produces gametes for sexual reproduction.

How to Complete a Punnet Square



Step 1:

Put the two alleles from one parent into the boxes at the top. This parent is a heterozygote. This means they have one dominant and one recessive allele.

Step 2:

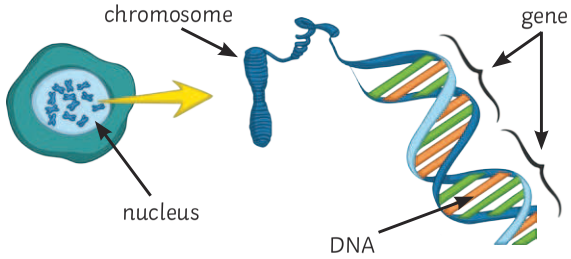
Put the two alleles from the second parent into the boxes on the left. This parent is also a heterozygote.

Step 3:

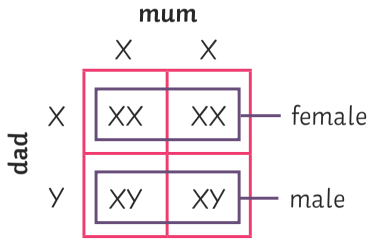
Put the alleles from the first parent into the two boxes underneath them.

Step 4:

Put the alleles from the second parent into the two boxes to the right of them.



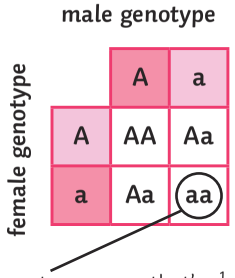
Sex Determination



Females carry two X chromosomes.
Males carry one X and one Y chromosome.

Probability

There are four possible combinations of gametes that offspring can inherit.



One of these four has the genotype aa – that's $\frac{1}{4}$, 25% or 0.25.

The recessive phenotype has a ratio of 1:3 because only one combination will show the phenotype while the other three will not.

Inheritance, Variation and Evolution Knowledge Organiser

Keywords

embryo screening – Genetic tests carried out on an embryo to see whether it carries a faulty allele.

evolution – A change in the inherited characteristics of a population over time through a process of natural selection.

evolutionary tree – A method used to show how scientists believe organisms are related.

extinction – The permanent loss of all members of a species.

fossils – The remains of organisms from millions of years ago which are found in rocks.

genetic engineering – The process by which scientists manipulate and change the genotype of an organism.

natural selection – The process by which organisms that are better suited to an environment are more likely to survive and reproduce.

selective breeding – Humans selecting animals or plants, that have a required characteristic, for breeding.

speciation – The process by which two species evolve from a single original species by natural selection. The two populations have become so different that they can no longer interbreed to produce fertile offspring.

variation - Differences in characteristics of individuals in a population.

Variation

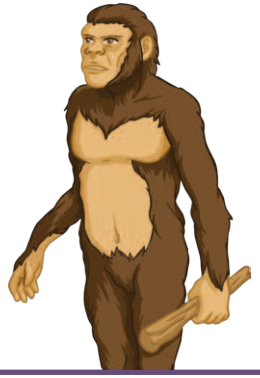
Variation maybe be due to differences in:

- the genes that have been inherited (genetic causes);
- the conditions in which they have developed (environmental causes);
- a combination of genes and the environment.

Evolution

All species of living things have evolved from simple life forms by natural selection.

- If a variant/characteristic is advantageous in an environment, then the individual will be better able to compete.
- This means they are more likely to survive and reproduce.
- Their offspring will inherit the advantageous allele.



Fossils

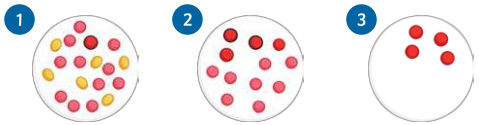
Fossils could be:

- the actual remains of an organism that has not decayed;
- mineralised forms of the harder parts of an organism, such as bones;
- traces of organisms such as footprints or burrows.

Many early life forms were soft-bodied so have left few traces behind.

Fossils help us understand how much or little organisms have changed as life developed on earth.

Resistant Bacteria



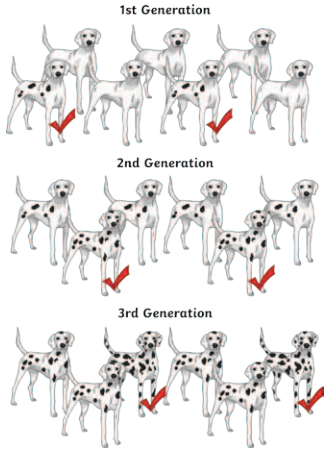
1. There is variation in the bacterial population. One bacterium develops a mutation by chance that means it is resistant to an antibiotic.
2. The antibiotic kills some of the bacteria, the resistant bacterium survives and reproduces.
3. The antibiotic kills the rest of the non-resistant bacteria so the person may start to feel a little better. The resistant bacterium has survived the antibiotic and continues to multiply.

To reduce the rate at which antibiotic-resistant strains appear:

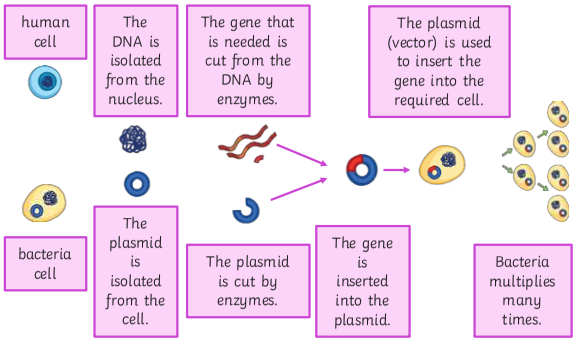
- Antibiotics should only be used when they are really needed, not for treating non-serious or viral infections.
- Patients should complete their courses of antibiotics, even if they start to feel better.
- The agricultural use of antibiotics should be restricted.

Selective Breeding

1. Choose parents who have the desired characteristic.
2. Select the best offspring and breed these to make the next generation.
3. These offspring are then bred again and again, over many generations, until a desired result is achieved.



Genetic Engineering



Classification

Linnaeus classified living things into kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, genus and species.

Organisms are named by the binomial system of genus and species.

Due to evidence from chemical analysis, there is now a 'three-domain system' developed by Carl Woese.

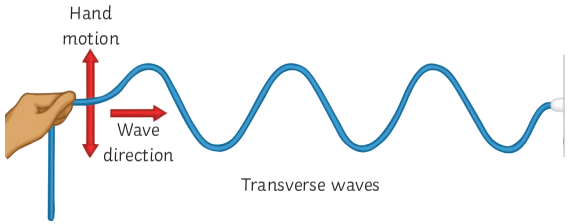
Domain	bacteria	archaea	eukaryota			
Kingdom	eubacteria	archaebacteria	protista	fungi	plantae	animalia

AQA GCSE Physics (Combined Science) Unit 6: Waves

Transverse and Longitudinal Waves

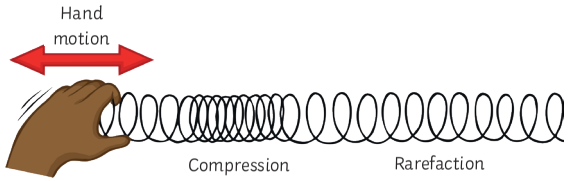
Waves can be either **transverse** or **longitudinal**.

In a transverse wave, the vibrations are at a right angle (**perpendicular**) to the direction of the energy transfer. The wave has **peaks** (or crests) and **troughs**. Examples include **water waves** and **light waves**.



Transverse waves

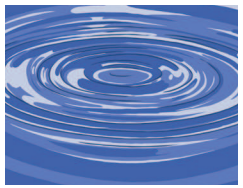
In a longitudinal wave, the vibrations are in the same direction (**parallel**) as the energy transfer. The wave has areas of **compression** and **rarefaction**. Examples of this type of wave are **sound waves**.



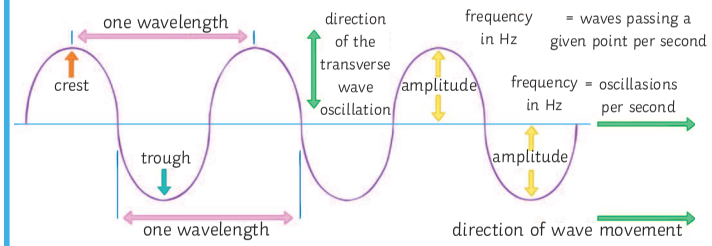
Longitudinal waves

When a wave travels, energy is transferred but the matter itself does not move. Particles of water or air vibrate and transfer energy but do not move with the wave.

This can be shown by placing a cork in a tank of water and generating ripples across the surface. The cork will bob up and down on the **oscillations** of the wave but will not travel across the tank.



Properties of Waves



The **frequency** of a wave is the number of waves which pass a given point every second.

time period (s) = 1 ÷ frequency (Hz)

t = 1 ÷ f

The **wave speed** is how quickly the energy is transferred through a medium (how quickly the wave travels).

wave speed (m/s) = frequency (Hz) × wavelength (m)

v = f × λ

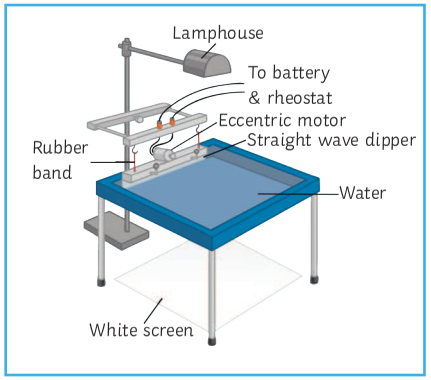
The speed of **sound waves** travelling through air can be measured by a simple method. One person stands a measured distance from a large flat wall, e.g. 100m. The person then claps and another person measures the time taken to hear the echo. The speed of the sound can then be calculated using the equation

speed = distance × time.

Remember the distance will be double because the wave has travelled to the wall and back again. It is important to take several measurements and calculate the average to reduce the likelihood of human error.

Required Practical Investigation 8

Aim: make observations and identify the suitability of apparatus to measure the frequency, wavelength and speed of waves in a ripple tank and waves in a solid, and take appropriate measurements.



The **ripple tank apparatus** shown is the most commonly used for this investigation. It is likely you will work in groups or observe the investigation as a demonstration by your teacher.

Method (assuming the apparatus is already set-up):

Turn on the power and observe the waves. Make any necessary adjustments to the equipment so that the waves are clear to observe (alter the voltage supplying the motor). **N.B. The lowest frequency setting on the motor will ensure that the waves measurements can be made more easily.**

To measure the **wavelength**, use the metre ruler and make an estimate quickly. You may want to use a **stroboscope** and freeze the wave patterns to make measurements.

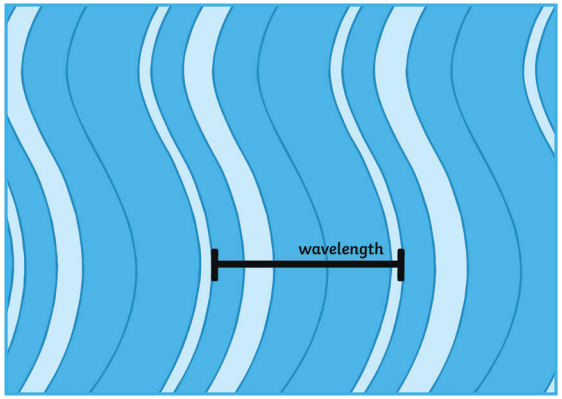
Record 10 wavelengths and calculate the **average** value.

To measure the wave **frequency**, mark a given point onto the white paper and **count** the number of waves which pass the point within **10 seconds**. Divide your answer by 10 to find the number of **waves per second**.

Record 10 frequencies and calculate the **average** value.

To calculate the wave speed, use this formula:
speed = frequency × wavelength

Remember: the wavelength is the distance between one peak (or crest) of a wave and the next peak.



Required Practical Investigation 9

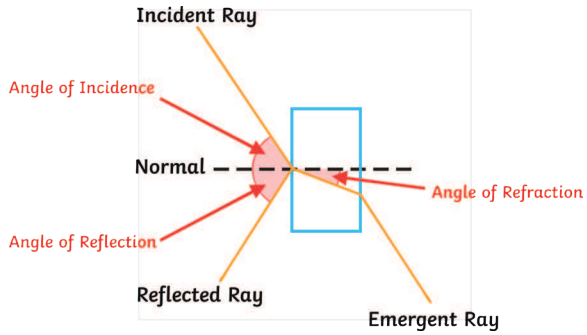
Aim: investigate the reflection of light by different types of surface and the refraction of light by different substances.

Method:

1. In a darkened room, set up the ray box on a flat surface and insert the filter to produce a single ray of light.
2. Place a glass block in the centre of a piece of plain A3 paper.
3. Draw a line around the glass block.
4. Draw a line at 90°C to the glass block and label the line normal, as shown in the diagram.
5. Position the ray box so the ray of light hits the glass at an angle.
6. Using a pencil, draw the incidence, reflected and emergent rays as shown in the diagram.
7. Remove the glass block and draw the refracted ray going through the block.
8. Using a protractor, measure the angles of incidence, reflection and refraction. Record your results.
9. Repeat the experiment by placing a clear acrylic block on the A3 paper in the same position as the glass block.
10. The incident ray must follow the same line as before. Draw the reflected and refracted rays and measure using a protractor.
11. Collect four sets of results from other members of the class.

The law of reflection states:

angle of incidence = angle of reflection



Risk assessment:

The ray box will become hot during use and may cause minor burns. To prevent this, you should not touch the lamp and ensure you allow time for the ray box to cool after use.

You will be working in a semi-dark environment which means there is a higher risk of trips or falls. You should ensure your working space is clear of bags and coats, and that stools are tucked under desks before you start your investigation.

Required Practical Investigation 10

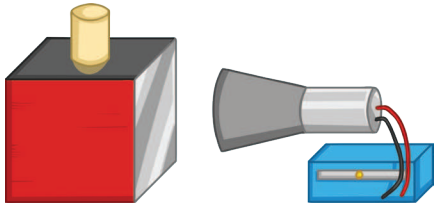
Aim: investigate how the amount of infrared radiation absorbed or radiated by a surface depends on the nature of that surface.

In this investigation, you are finding out which type of surface emits the most **infrared** radiation:

- **dark and matt**
- **dark and shiny**
- **light and matt**
- **light and shiny**

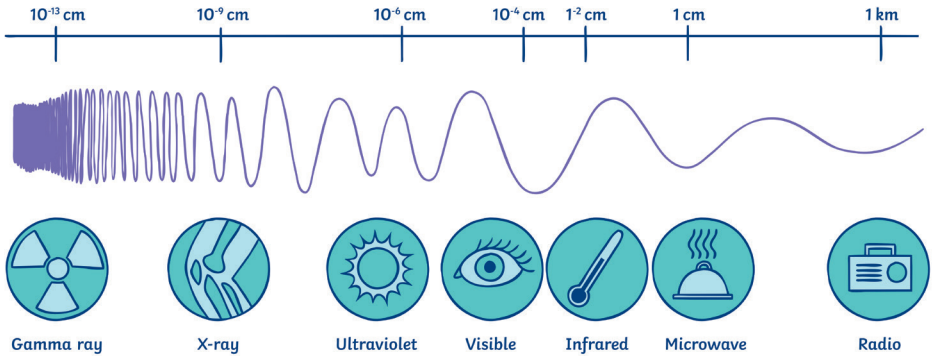
Method:

1. Place the **Leslie cube** on a heatproof mat.
2. Once the kettle has boiled, fill the Leslie cube with hot water.
3. Ensuring that the **thermometer** or the **infrared detector** is an **equal distance** from each of the surfaces (in turn) on the Leslie cube, measure the amount of infrared radiation emitted.
4. Repeat the experiment twice more to collect three results for each surface.



The Electromagnetic Spectrum

Electromagnetic waves transfer energy from a source to an **absorber** as **transverse** waves. The different waves are grouped depending on their **frequency** and form a continuous spectrum known as the **electromagnetic spectrum**. Each of the frequencies of waves travel at the same **velocity** and can pass through a **vacuum** as well as **air**.



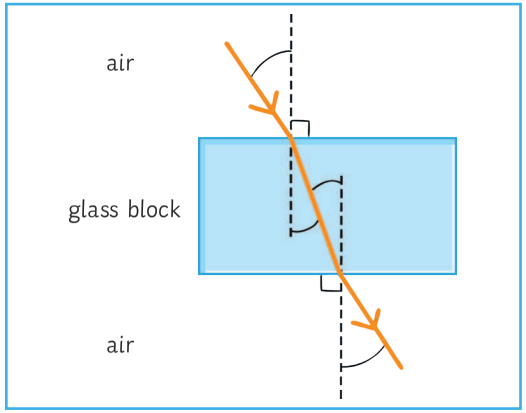
Frequency	Wave	Use	Other Information
Low	radio waves	Communication via television and radio, and satellite communications.	Easily transmitted through air and can be reflected to change their direction. Harmless if absorbed by the human body. Are reflected back off the atmosphere and cannot pass through into space.
	microwaves	Communications including satellite communications and cooking food.	When the molecules absorb microwaves, their internal energy increases. This can be harmful when internal body cells become heated by over exposure to microwaves. Can pass through the atmosphere and into space.
	infrared	Short-range communications (remote controls), electrical heaters, cooking food, optical fibres, security systems and thermal imaging cameras.	It can cause burns to skin.
	visible light	Used for lighting, photography and fibre optics.	Frequency range that is detectable by the human eye.
	ultraviolet	Sterilising water and killing bacteria. Detecting forged bank notes.	Causes skin tanning and can lead to burns or skin cancer.
	X-rays	Medical imaging and airport security scanners.	Very little energy is absorbed by body tissues. Instead, it is transmitted through the body. These waves can lead to gene mutation and cancer.
High	gamma rays	Sterilising medical equipment or food and treatment for some cancers.	

You can remember the order of the electromagnetic spectrum easily with the phrase:

Roman men invented very unusual X-ray guns.

Properties of Electromagnetic Waves

You should be able to complete or construct a **ray diagram** to show how a wave is **refracted** at the boundary of a different medium.



As the wave moves **to** a more dense medium (e.g. from gas to solid), it slows down and bends so that the angle from the normal becomes smaller. The angle of incidence is larger than the angle of refraction.

As the wave moves **from** a more dense medium (e.g. from solid to gas), it speeds up and bends so that the angle from the normal becomes larger. The angle of refraction is larger than the angle of incidence.

The angle at which a wave enters the glass block is equal to the angle that it leaves the glass block (when entering and leaving the same medium); however, if a wave crosses a boundary between two mediums at an angle of 90°C, then it will not change direction but instead carry on in a straight line.

Gamma rays occur as the result of changes to the nuclei of atoms and atoms themselves. It is a form of radiation and the waves can be generated and absorbed across a wide range of frequencies.

UV, X-rays and **gamma** are all types of **radiation** and can be **harmful** to human health; they cause damage to human body tissues. The severity of the damage caused depends on the dose of radiation a tissue or cell is exposed to. **Radiographers** and dentists who routinely carry out X-ray examinations wear a device to monitor the amount of exposure and ensure they are within a **safe limit**.

X-rays and gamma rays are **ionising** and can cause **mutations** to genes which may result in **cancer**.

UV waves can cause the skin to burn and age prematurely. UV exposure also increases the risk of developing **skin cancer**.

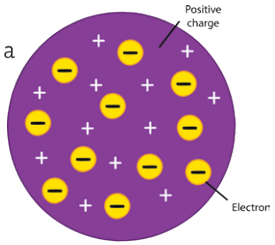
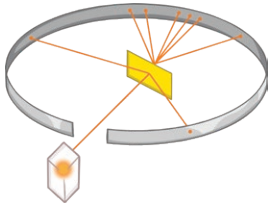
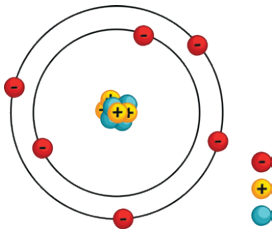
Radio Waves (Higher tier only)

Oscillations in **electrical circuits** can produce **radio waves** which when absorbed by a conductor, produce an **alternating current**.

The alternating current has the same **frequency** as the radio wave and so information can be coded for transmission. This is how **television** and **radio** are broadcast.

Atomic Structure Knowledge Organiser – Foundation and Higher

Developing the Model of the Atom

Scientist	Time	Contribution
John Dalton	Start of 19th century	Atoms were first described as solid spheres.
JJ Thomson	1897	Thomson suggested the plum pudding model – the atom is a ball of charge with electrons scattered within it.  Plum pudding model
Ernest Rutherford	1909	Alpha Scattering experiment – Rutherford discovered that the mass is concentrated at the centre and the nucleus is charged. Most of the mass is in the nucleus. Most atoms are empty space. 
Niels Bohr	Around 1911	Bohr theorised that the electrons were in shells orbiting the nucleus. 
James Chadwick	Around 1940	Chadwick discovered neutrons in the nucleus.

Isotopes

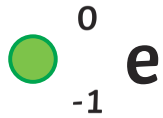
An isotope is an element with the same number of protons but a different number of neutrons. They have the same atomic number, but different mass numbers.

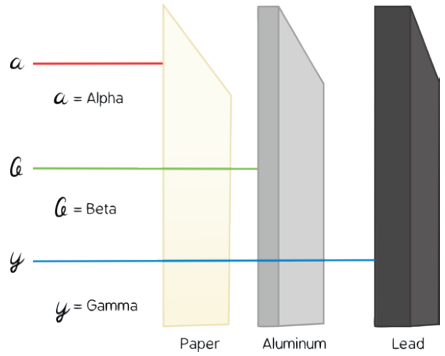
Isotope	Protons	Electrons	Neutrons
$^{1}_{1}H$	1	1	0
$^{2}_{1}H$	1	1	1
$^{3}_{1}H$	1	1	2

Some isotopes are unstable and, as a result, decay and give out radiation. Ionising radiation is radiation that can knock electrons off atoms. Just how ionising this radiation is, depends on how readily it can do that.

Beta

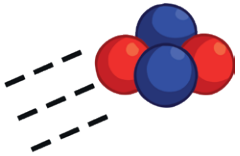
Beta radiation is a fast moving electron that can be stopped by a piece of aluminium. Beta radiation is emitted by an atom when a neutron splits into a proton and an electron.





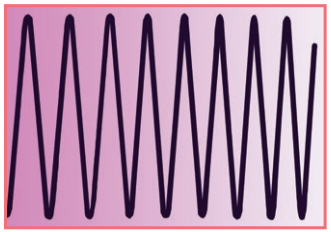
Alpha

Alpha radiation is an alpha particle emitted from the nucleus of a radioactive nuclei. It is made from two protons and two neutrons. They can't travel too far in the air and are the least penetrating – stopped by skin and paper. However, they are highly ionising because of their size.



Gamma

A gamma wave is a wave of radiation and is the most penetrating – stopped by thick lead and concrete.



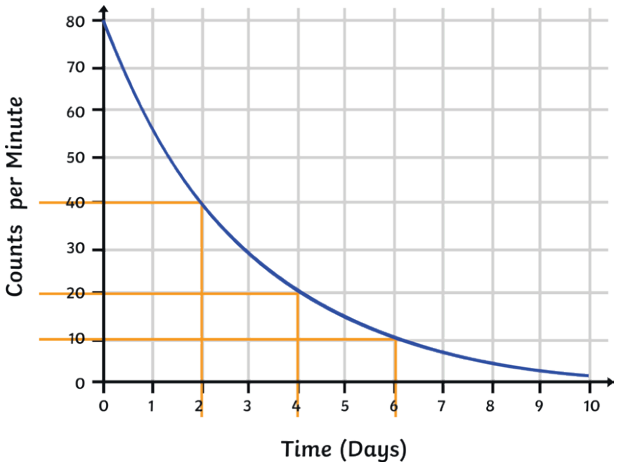
Half-life

The half-life is the time taken for the number of radioactive nuclei in an isotope to halve.

Radioactivity is a random process – you will not know which nuclei will decay. Radioactive decay is measured in becquerels Bq. 1 Bq is one decay per second.

Radioactive substances give out radiation from their nucleus.

A graph of half-life can be used to calculate the half-life of a material and will always have this shape:



Judging from the graph, the radioactive material has a half-life of two days.

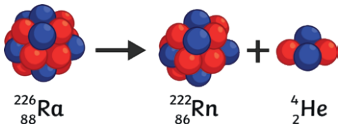
Irradiation

Irradiation occurs when materials are near a radioactive source. The source is sometimes placed inside a lead-lined box to avoid this.

People who work with radioactive sources will sometimes stand behind a lead barrier, be in a different room or use a remote-controlled arm when handling radioactive substances.

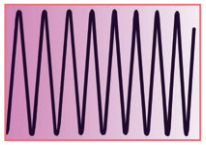
Alpha Decay Equations

An alpha particle is made of two protons and two neutrons. The atomic number goes down by two and its mass number decreases by four.



Gamma rays

There is no change to the nucleus when a radioactive source emits gamma radiation. It is the nucleus getting rid of excess energy.



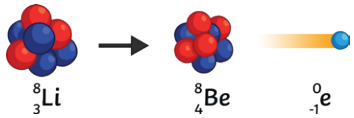
Contamination

When unwanted radioactive atoms get onto an object, it is possible for the radioactive particles to get inside the body.

Protective clothing should be worn when handling radioactive material.

Beta Decay Equations

A neutron turns into a proton and releases a an electron. The mass of the nucleus does not change but the number of protons increases.



Alpha radiation is more dangerous inside the body. It is highly ionising and able to cause a lot of damage. Outside the body it is less dangerous because it cannot penetrate the skin.

Beta radiation is less dangerous inside the body as some of the radiation is able to escape. Outside the body it is more dangerous as it can penetrate the skin.

Gamma radiation is the least dangerous inside the body as most will pass out and it is the least ionising. Gamma is more dangerous outside the body as it can penetrate the skin.

PLYMPTON ACADEMY

TERM ONE & TWO

HANDBOOK

YEAR 11

SCIENCE